

FORMING A COMPLETE RECORD OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF ALL PUBLIC COMPANIES.

[PRICE 6D.]

LAW INTELLIGENCE.

IMPORTANT TO SHAREHOLDERS IN JOINT STOCK UNDERTAKINGS.

COURT OF CHANCERY—MARCH 5.

AGRICULTURAL BANK OF IRELAND—WATSON v. GREER.—The counsel, in opening this case, stated that the statute on which the corporation called the Agricultural and Commercial Bank was founded, was the 6th of Geo. IV., amended by the 1st of Wm. IV. It was passed for the purpose of enabling certain parties to associate together as a joint-stock banking company. The 10th section enacts that proceedings might be taken against any officer or officers of the company. The next section to which he would direct attention was the 18th. Having directed how the instruments ought to be executed, the statute then proceeds to enact how the judgment is to be proceeded with against the officers whose names may be registered in the stamp-office, and if that fails he has his action against every one of his partners whose names are signed to the registered deed. And the 19th section enacts that if any officers of the company have been proceeded against, all his expenses that he may have incurred in the action shall be paid to him out of the funds of the company. Now, in the case at present under consideration, Solomon Watson has been out on the part of the company something more than 240*l.*, and he brings his action for the recovery of the amount against Mr. Greer, who denies that he is, or ever was, a member of that corporation. Now they had procured from the stamp office the precise document which was described in the section of the Act just read, which dated in 1841; that deed for 1841 would not be made out till March next, and there he found the name of Samuel B. Greer in both the documents. It is signed by Mr. Hughes, and clearly established the fact that Mr. Greer was a member of the corporation. From what had fallen from Mr. Holmes he supposed it would be contended that Mr. Greer never signed the deed, and is, therefore, not liable; but he (Mr. Greer) was careless whether he did sign it or not. The Legislature had not specified that every one who dealt with the bank should sign its deed, but they had placed such a list in the stamp-office that every one might have recourse to it if they wished to examine the character of the company. If they did not do that they would be setting a trap for the public; but that must be placed there, and its correctness certified on oath. If that were not done any man who chose might participate in the profits of a company without being liable to any of its losses. These documents to which he had referred were signed by Mr. Cooper, the Comptroller-General of Stamps; and having proved them, he thought they would have made out a clear case, and entitled themselves to a verdict at the hands of the jury.

The counsel for the defendant said it was sought by this action to saddle Mr. Greer with 240*l.* on account of this deed, and that company, called the Agricultural and Commercial Bank of Ireland, and it was attempted to charge this gentleman on the production of certain documents from the stamp-office, containing the names of parties which the officers of that company have thought proper to put in those documents. No doubt the Act enacts the provision Mr. Greer mentioned, and he must admit that the document was drawn out according to that Act; but he did not admit that it was conclusive evidence for the company. The names were entered there as they appeared in the books of the company, and yet, while it was certified to, it was not, he contended, conclusive evidence. Why, the officers of the company might enter any name they chose in the deed—any of the names of the gentlemen of the jury—therefore the document was not proof. It was admitted that his client had never signed the document in question, and because the officer of the company enters the name of his client was he therefore to become liable? It was monstrous to suppose such a thing. It was a question of law for the learned Judge, that if his client had never put his name to the original document, or authorized any one to do so for him, in any way he was liable, and he relied on his lordship's decision in *Verdict* for him.

The COURT.—You don't stand in any proof. I hold that the documents were not conclusive evidence, but I hold them to be *prima facie* evidence that the defendant is a member of the company. The only thing not proved is that he signed the document, but that was not required, for another may sell out and be purchased, or he may dispose of his shares and another purchase them, and there was a statement made every year, which held good from March to March, in which all the changes that had taken place during the year were introduced. He wished to state merely that he held the document to be *prima facie* evidence.

Mr. TOWN submitted that it was *prima facie* evidence unless rebutted by other evidence. He again submitted an objection, and that there was some evidence to go to the jury. His client was not, and is not, a member of the company.

The learned JUDGE said it was a very serious question, which might affect great numbers, and had been ably stated on both sides. His direction to the jury would be to find for the plaintiff; but there was a grave question of law which remained to be argued, and if it were found that there was evidence to go to the jury the verdict would be changed into one for the defendant.—The JURY then found a verdict for the plaintiff, as directed by his lordship.

THE NORTHERN RAILWAYS' DISPUTE.

COURT OF CHANCERY—MARCH 12.

THE CLARENCE RAILWAY COMPANY v. NORTH OF ENGLAND, CLARENCE AND HARTFORD RAILWAYS.—The Lord Chancellor delivered judgment on this motion, which sought the dissolution of an injunction restraining the defendants from crossing the Clarence Railway by their line. His lordship said it was no doubt a question of great importance, for if the North of England Company succeeded they would become formidable rivals to the Clarence, as regards the communication with Hartlepool. On the other hand, it was of equal importance to the North of England Company to be permitted to cross, otherwise their whole object would be defeated. But at present the question was a narrow one, and turned upon the construction of an Act of Parliament, both difficult and doubtful, though it was not necessary to give his opinion upon it, because it was properly cognisable in a court of law. His lordship said he must now consider the interests of both companies, each complaining of irreparable injury. But the crossing of their line would only occasion a temporary inconvenience of a few hours to the Clarence Company, while retarding the North of England one, considering the state of their agreement with Mr. Williamson for the purchase of his land, would work them irreparable mischief. The inconvenience to the Clarence Company admitted of any easy pecuniary compensation, while, although the court of law might decree the effect by refusing to extend its agreement beyond the 15th of April. His lordship said he was of opinion there had been no needless delay on the part of the defendants, and he thought the balance inclined in favour of their case. The injunction would, therefore, be dissolved so far as it applied to the completion of the works of the North of England Company, effected by the contract with Mr. Williamson. Having varied the order of the Vice Chancellor, there would be no costs, and either party had liberty to apply, if necessary.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS—THE PROPOSED NEW TARIFF.

PROPOSED DUTY ON TIN AND COPPER ORES.

TUESDAY.—Sir C. LEWIS begged to ask the right hon. gentleman opposite what was the intention of Government with regard to the duty to be imposed on tin, as he observed that it had been omitted from the schedule in the tariff? He also desired to know what was the amount of duty intended to be imposed upon foreign copper ore imported into this country for smelting? And whether it was intended to lay the duty on copper ore in proportion to the quantity of metal contained in that ore, or merely on the quantity of ore as imported.—Mr. W. E. GLADSTONE, in answer to the hon. baronet, said that, as regarded tin, it had been omitted from the tariff in error; it was intended, however, to alter the present duty from 5*l.* 10*s.* the cwt. to 10*l.* a ton, or 10*s.* the cwt., a higher duty being imposed on the importation of metallic tin than other metals in the same stage of preparation, on account of the duty which was levied on that article by the Duke of Cornwall. With regard to the duty on copper ore, it was intended to do away altogether with the system of smelting in bond, and to make all ore liable to a duty of 5 per cent., of course, whether for exportation or consumption at home. As to the hon. baronet's third question, if he desired to know whether it was intended to take 2 per cent. of the market value of the ore, or 2 per cent. of the market value of the copper extracted from the ore, the intention certainly was to take 2 per cent. of the market value of the ore, and not of the copper extracted by smelting.

REPORT DUTY ON COALS.

Mr. LAWSON said that a deputation from the north of England were anxious to see the right hon. baronet on the subject of the proposed duty on coals before he brought forward his measure, and he, therefore, hoped it might be postponed till a late day after Easter.—Sir C. LEWIS said he saw no reason for postponing the measure. The deputation might come to London forthwith.—Mr. LAWSON hoped the right hon. baronet would postpone his measure to a late day.—Sir C. LEWIS said he intended to proceed with it on Friday.

Mr. HUNT presented petitions from the General Shipping Company, and from others connected with the shipping trade against the proposed report duty on coals.

THURSDAY.—Mr. M. ATTWOOD moved that a branch address be presented to her Majesty, praying that her Majesty will be graciously pleased to direct his Majesty's ministers, situated in those foreign parts to which British coals are exported, to report what quantities of such coals have been received in those parts during the year 1841, and to state, as far as they are enabled to do so, the purposes to which such coals have been applied.—The motion of the hon. gentleman was agreed to.

IMPORTANT DISCOVERIES IN ELECTRICITY.

Accounts from Paris state that Sir Graves Houghton has discovered that needles made of any substance will place themselves at right angles to a wire through which a current of electricity is sent, even with more readiness than those which are magnetic—and for this simple reason, that their movement is not counteracted by polarity. This discovery, he says, must have important consequences upon prevailing views respecting magnetism, as it entirely overturns the hypothesis of Ampère, that terrestrial currents, passing from east to west, are the cause of magnetic polarity; for it is evident, were this the case, all needles freely suspended ought to have the same polarity as the magnet; it being now found that all obey but one law in the presence of electricity, whether current or quiescent. The supposition, therefore, on which Ampère founded his theory of magnetic polarity, and which the well-known experiment of Mr. Barlow with a globe of wood intersected by wires seemed to confirm, has no foundation. Needles of gold, silver, brass, copper, lead, zinc, iron, glass, sealing-wax, ivory, wood, charcoal, leather, card, quill, straw, feather, &c., have been tried; and, by experiments on a great number of other substances, there is no doubt that the law is universal. A simple mode used by Sir Graves Houghton of generating the electric fluid without either machine or pile, has enabled him to arrive at these results, and has further led to what Dr. Faraday thought was impossible—viz., the production, at pleasure, of an absolute charge of either electricity; and he has consequently been enabled to magnetise common sewing-needles by purely negative electricity—the points turned towards the electrifying body acquiring what is popularly called south polarity. The notion, therefore, that electrical phenomena depend merely upon a polar arrangement of matter must now be abandoned by those who favour that theory; and the contest will lie, for the future, between the respective advocates for a single or a double fluid, Sir Graves Houghton holding decidedly for the first, in consequence of indications which he has observed. He has also been led to the inference, that the electric fluid is not the agent in what are called attractions and repulsions, but that its presence or absence is simply the condition upon which such results take place. The objection to the theory of Franklin, founded upon the mutual repulsion of two bodies negatively electrified, is consequently removed. A detailed account of what is connected with these important facts (which have had more than a year's consideration, will shortly be laid before the scientific world, as well as a rationale of electricity, galvanism, and magnetism, founded upon the foregoing and other well-known discoveries, which will demonstrate that these connected sciences are of the utmost simplicity in their first principles, and that all the Protean variety which has been observed in their phenomena, and which might be extended as far as human ingenuity could go, may be all resolved into one proposition—viz., electrical and magnetic phenomena depend for their variety upon the NATURE and FORM of the body in which they appear, and the QUANTITY of electric fluid present, whether current or quiescent.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

MARCH 15.—The proceedings of the evening commenced with a renewal of the discussion upon Kyanising timber, in the course of which a member described some experiments made since the last meeting; the result was, that at a pressure equal to 120 fathoms, a piece of Mersey timber had absorbed as much water as doubled its original weight. Another member observed some specimens of Kyanised timber which had been prepared in 1838, 1839, and 1840, they were all in progressive stages of decay. A new process, patented by Mr. Payne, of filling up the pores of timber with various substances, so as to render it almost like stone, and perfectly incombustible, was mentioned; this was also Dr. Bouchiere's system of saturating timber with various metallic salts, &c., by means of the capillary action going on within the open vessels of trees as long as vegetable life remains. In the course of the discussion it was elicited that this system had been patented by Mr. Bethell as long ago as 1839, and that the specification of Dr. Bouchiere's patent was almost a literal copy of Mr. Bethell's. The system had not been carried forward in this country because it was found too expensive. Mr. Bethell's system of saturating timber with the oil of coal tar, as practised for the Bristol and Exeter and other railways, was fully described, and appeared to be attended with perfect success. A gentleman connected with the Anti Dry-Rot Company attributed the failure of Kyan's system in many instances to carelessness in the preparation, or the too sparing use of the corrosive substances. A letter was read from Mr. Dawson, describing some remarkable specimens of timber which had been destroyed by the teredo navalis, and also some of the insects preserved in spirits.—Two papers were then read descriptive of "An Iron Bridge on the Eastern Counties Railway," by Mr. Dobson, and "The Roof of Messrs. Simpson's Factory, at Piccadilly," by Mr. Bonstrad; much ingenuity was displayed in the construction and the combination of the materials of the roof and bridge, and the drawings illustrated them very clearly.

NATIONAL BREAKWATER COMPANY.—On the motion that this bill, now before the House of Commons, be read a second time, Captain Fitzroy said, that he felt it his duty to call the attention of the House and the public to the company about to be formed under the bill then before them, with a view to induce those who were disposed to think favourably of the speculation to think a little before they gave it their sanction. His decided opinion was that these floating breakwaters would not last more than three or four years, unless they were protected by some metallic substance. The worms also would penetrate through them and destroy their buoyancy, and the chains by which they were adjusted and held in their places would rust, and wear away very fast. Such, at least, was the case with the chains attached to the buoys put down by the Trinity House, which they were obliged to examine every six months, and which seldom lasted more than five or six years.

CONSUMPTION OF SMOKE.—We are happy to learn that, in consequence of the perfect success of Mr. Samuel Hall's patent apparatus for the consumption of smoke, as applied to the *Ree* locomotive-engine on the Midland Counties Railway, the directors of that company are applying it to another of their engines, the *Wolff*, which will be ready in a few days. It was put to the *Times* locomotive about a week ago, and is now in daily operation on the Birmingham and Derby Junction Railway. Its accurate consumption of smoke is highly interesting, and deserving of the inspection of the scientific world.—*Daily Reporter.*

EARTHQUAKE IN CORNWALL.—We find that the statement, inserted in our last, in Mr. R. Hunt's notice of the recent earthquake in Cornwall, respecting the kilble filler at Wheal Baazet having his work and going to surface, in consequence of the disturbance, was not true; and, our correspondent adds, "it is exceedingly difficult to get correct information about this same earthquake."

LECTURES ON GEOLOGY.—A course of six lectures on geology is in course of delivery by Mr. LONNEY, F.G.S., of Manchester, at the Rhodes Mechanics' Institution; we are glad to learn, that the first of the series was numerously attended, and that the auditory departed highly gratified with the intellectual enjoyment afforded by the lectures, in his explanation of the geological sciences, the duration of geological periods, chemical data as to the exterior parts of the earth, connection of geology with astronomy, nebular theory of the universe, form of rock masses, declination of strata, origin of stratified and unstratified rocks, granite, volcanic agency, modern eruptions, &c.

MURIATIC ACID.—At the meeting of the Royal Medical-Botanical Society, on the 9th inst. (Dr. Sigmond in the chair), a communication was read from M. de Pasquier, on the presence of a notable quantity of arsenic in the muriatic acid of commerce, and in the acid purified for chemical and pharmaceutical purposes. The author's attention was first directed to this subject by finding that, when testing since for arsenic in Marsh's apparatus, the muriatic acid yielded indisputable evidence of the presence of arsenic, while the sulphuric acid gave negative results; he then instituted a series of experiments on the muriatic acids in use in his laboratory, both pure and impure, which clearly demonstrated that a large quantity of arsenic was contained therein. The source of the poison was traced to the sulphuric acid used in its preparation, and which was made from copper pyrites, containing a quantity of sulphuret of arsenic. The author directed attention to the fact, that muriatic acid is employed in pharmacy, in manufactures, and in chemical and medical-legal researches; in all these instances the presence of arsenic must be exceedingly injurious; and the acid, therefore, should always be treated with the utmost care.

RISE OF THE SURFACE OF LAND IN SWEDEN.—In Sweden, as well as in Italy, the land rises constantly from out of the bosom of the surrounding sea; this operation takes place very slowly and gradually, yet it seems without interruption. According to the late observations of M. Nicomif, the Neapolitan geologist, the land of the west coast of Italy has risen, from the year 1823 to 1838, 112 millimetres. The same fact has been long observed in Sweden, but never yet ascertained by any accurate measurement.

COAL MINES OF PRUSSIA.

In the *Journal* of the 26th February last we published some observations on the mineral produce of Prussia, referring more particularly to iron and its elaboration, as exercising the largest share of influence upon the extraction and improvement of textile and other manufactures. As of greater importance still, perhaps, because first in the order of these elementary substances on the abundance and working of which the general industrial prosperity depends, the coal mines of that country, with the present state and prospects of their productiveness, must be a subject of considerable interest, not alone with the large class engaged in the same branch of industry in this country, but with the manufacturing interests at large, as well as with scientific inquirers in general. The coal mines of the provinces of Silesia, Westphalia, and the Rhine have become gradually, but remarkably, productive. The Prussian province of Saxony furnishes very little black coal of good quality; but, on the contrary, it produces a large quantity of brownish, or brown coal—a coal of brownish hue, much inferior in quality to the ordinary black coal, being not so hard, and much poorer, in ignitable matter, and consequently of less value. It may be said to hold a middle rank between mineral coal and turf, and is chiefly consumed in the province itself, within a limited range around the places where extracted.

The total value of the coal obtained from the mines in Prussia, in 1839, was calculated at 5,132,828 thalers, or dollars, or, at 2*s.* 10*d.* sterling the thaler, in round numbers about 743,200*l.* The comparison between the value of coal extracted and of metals is as 23 to 73; and as to the numbers of labourers employed, as 39 to 62. Throughout the whole extent of the kingdom of Prussia 354 coal mines were worked in 1839, the date of the latest returns made public, which altogether yielded 12,313,160 tons of coal (the Prussian ton, however, weighing only, in coal weights and measures there, four quintals, or centners, of about 110 lbs. each), or 48,652,640 quintals, constituting a total value of 4,779,628 thalers; the difference betwixt this lesser amount and the larger estimate before given, being made up by casual production and superficial workings. According to the value thus stated, the mean price of sale on the spot, or at the pit's mouth, should be rather less than three shillings, or about 3*d.* per quintal (of 110 lbs.) or per *schefel*—a measure equal to a fraction more than one and a half imperial bushels. The workings of the coal mines gave employment altogether to 19,370 labourers—making, with their families, a total of 44,170 individuals owing the means of existence to the production of this combustible.

No branch of mining industry in the Prussian states has been more largely developed, since its origin, than that of coal, as the following figures relative to the production and the ratio of increase (in tons) will serve to show:—

Rate of increase from one period to another.	
1819	4,492,627
1824	6,090,504 from 1819 to 1824, 36.6 per cent.
1829	6,837,733 " 1824 " 1829, 12.2 "
1834	8,324,510 " 1829 " 1834, 21.7 "
1839	12,313,160 " 1834 " 1839, 46.7 "

The mean annual increase during a series of twenty years has, therefore, been nearly 6 per cent., and from 1819 to 1839 not far short of 120 per cent. The largest rate of increase in any of the terms of five years each, it is worthy of notice, dates from 1834 to 1839. Now, it was in 1834 that the Prussian, or German, Custom-house league was finally formed and completed, with the exception of Frankfurt, and two or three other of the lesser members, which have since acceded; and, from the completion of that league, it is, doubtless, that German and Prussian manufactures have received so strong an impulse and progression, and that, consequently, the increased consumption of coal leading to a greater demand, has encouraged the application of more capital and industry to the opening and working of mines. It is worthy of remark, moreover, that during all the lapse of those twenty years the price of coal, notwithstanding its extended consumption, has remained the same, within a very trifling variation. In 1819 the price was 2*d.* sixpence per quintal; it has since augmented only by one-sixth of a gross—that is, in the proportion of 33 to 35, or about 6 per cent. only. The increase in the price of wood, although varying according to the different provinces, has, on the contrary, been considerably more during the same twenty years, and may be estimated at the mean rate of advance of 50 per cent. in the three provinces where the coal mines are situated and coal produced. Thus the iron, with other metal works and manufactures which necessarily require much fuel, can exist and prosper only in the vicinity of the coal mines, and there only where the means of transport are convenient and economical. The following statement (in tons) gives the details of the coal production per province:—

Province of Silesia	1819	1,429,167
"	1824	2,776,050
"	1829	3,207,645
"	1834	3,416,033
"	1839	3,576,550
Province of Westphalia	1819	1,651,341
"	1824	1,929,723
"	1829	2,611,492
"	1834	3,831,093
"	1839	3,034,054
Province of the Rhine	1819	1,165,967
"	1824	1,423,642
"	1829	1,652,637
"	1834	2,008,800
"	1839	3,514,815

Since 1830 coal mining enterprise, or, as in French it would be more appropriately and significantly rendered, the exploitation of coal, for which the English language, the land of mines as Great Britain is, affords no word of adequate expressiveness, having been favoured by the increased facilities of carriage upon the Rhine and the Rhine, large quantities of coal have been dispatched to Holland from the provinces of Westphalia and the Rhine, and particularly from the district of Trèves to France, Bavaria, Rhineland, and the Grand Duchy of Baden. The export from Silesia to Cracow and the Austria States is unimportant. The countries somewhat distant from the Prussian coal mines, where no sufficiently cheap means of carriage exist naturally, prefer to supply themselves with English coal, which can be imported at low rates of freight, and not infrequently as ballast, into Stettin and other Baltic ports. The provinces of Pomerania, Brandenburg, and Prussian Saxony are principally supplied through these ports. Sometimes it occurs that foreign coal is imported from Schaumburg and Belgium, for example, by way of Minden and Kaldenkerchen into the Prussian provinces of Westphalia and the Rhine.

These districts of the Prussian states where the exploitation of mines of all kinds is most vigorously pursued are—Oppeln, Merseburg, Arnheim, Trèves, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Düsseldorf. Mining enterprise is of less importance in the districts of Breslau, Legnica, Magdeburg, Erfurt, Münster, Minden, Cologne, and Coblenz. The influence which the working of coal mines, and of mines in general, exercises upon the condition of the Prussian population—a population of some 14,000,000—may be appreciated by the number of workpeople who derive, and, therefore, depend upon, their means of living from that source. In 1839 the statistical account stood thus:—

In the district of Oppeln.	
Labourers	11,790
With families	38,810
Arnheim	10,436
Trèves	8,961
Aix-la-Chapelle	5,865
Merseburg	5,430
Düsseldorf	5,835
Totals	43,538
With families	163,169

These six districts contain nearly seven-twelfths of the mining labourers and population of Prussia dependent for subsistence on mining industry.

GEOLOGY OF THE CHATHAM ISLANDS.—A memoir, communicated by Dr. E. Diessenbach, was read a short time since at the Geographical Society, from which we learn that the whole surface of the chief island, which abounds in fuel, provisions, and water, is estimated at 265,284 acres, of which 57,600 at least are occupied by lakes; of the remaining 207,684 acres, 100,000 may be regarded as good and cultivable land, the rest being for the greater part, fit for pasturage. The hills are of volcanic origin, and furnish an excellent material for building and for roads; none of these hills exceed 800 feet in elevation. It is from one of these that the island takes its name of Waiwaru. In the interior of the island there are high borders of the same nature as the rocks, covering basin-shaped depressions of the surface. The natives have no recollection of an earthquake besides the volcanic formation, there are stratified rocks of aqueous origin. The slate breaks into shales, which may be used in building. Besides the rocks, there is a conglomerate containing nodules of dark shining basalt like iron ore, and on the beach of the northern coast horizontal strata of a dark green sand of consolidated shells, of calcareous bryozoa, and other deposited strata. Lime may be obtained in sufficient quantity from the calcareous beds of this formation. In some parts of the island the formation is almost wholly of stones of trees in the state of lignite, others it is peaty. Having described in great detail the geology of the island, the memoir then describes the nature of the soil, which, when the plough has entered it, will in the worst parts prove to be a rich land, full of grain and meadows. The rise of the land affects good drainage. The island is surrounded by a girdle of trees and fern. In one place the land has become igneous, and burns slowly under the surface. Some of the strata of the island have black water, though quite clear, and suitable for all purposes.

GEOLOGY.—A NEW SYSTEM OF PHILOSOPHY.—No. X.
BY HENRY GRAHAM MONTAGUE, ESQ.

PHENOMENA OF THE DESERTS.

Wisdom drops a tear for the sufferings, for the follies of mankind. She goes—and weeps to see earth's proudest hope lie grovelling in the dust—the immortal gem of beauty dimmed by fear and folly. She would clothe man with knowledge as with a garment—she opens her arms to receive him as would a parent, her cherished favourite child—she displays her most tempting viands, reveals her most hidden treasures, and invites him to enjoyment; but her voice is neglected, her commands are despised—her treasures are exposed in vain—her love is returned with hate—the badging flower gives way to the cankerworm—the heart of joy is turned into mourning—the wine of knowledge is converted into the gall of bitterness.

Men fear the spread of knowledge, and fear they know not why. Is not light better than darkness? Is not a blooming garden better than a solitary flower? Is not the reason of man infinitely superior to the reason of animals? How long shall the feast of one cause the tears of ten thousand? Who is he, in the subtlety of words, seeking to prove that knowledge is hurtful to mankind? Even he who finds pleasure and profit in ignorance—even he whose iron heel is placed on the necks of his fellow-creatures. The lion condemns the speed of the antelope—the rapid flight of the swallow is condemned by the falcon—even so is knowledge condemned by man, who revels in the miseries of his fellows. Knowledge is the light of the world—it burns with a steady, during flame, but the spark of folly, fanned into greatness, quickly consumes itself. The steed, in his native wildness, requires the bit of iron and the rowelled spur, but, brought on the manger, his dormant faculties called forth, the child may guide him with a silken thread. As the light of the clear blue heavens to the emancipated captive, so does wisdom appear oppressively dazzling; she smiles, and nations rejoice in the light of her countenance—she speaks, and prosperity waits on the footsteps of industry; the emanations of her greatness clothe princes with honour, and the nobles of the earth with consideration and respect. "Come hither!" she cries to the child of mortality, "listen to my voice, and become great." The eagle flutters on the wing long ere it forsakes its nest, but, taught by me, it acquires knowledge to direct, and strength to sustain its flight. Learn from her, oh weak of intellect—nestling in thy prejudices—accursed in thy fears, thy life passeth away as the shadows of the morning. Why shouldst thou fear? Does the eagle repent her flight? Does she disdain the feathery shaft on which she is suspended?—and thou, with eager mind, prepared, like earth's rich soil, awaiting summer rains—wilt thou not take thy flight with Nature—Reason—Wisdom, for thy guide?

It is anything but pleasing or instructive, to the young mind thirsting after knowledge, to have to wade through the barbarous jargon of terms and inductive speculations of our modern philosophers—to have to steer his vessel through the troubled shoals of controversy without rudder or compass. The torrent, the whirlwind, and the volcano bringing death, desolation, and change, too often paralysed the faculties of man, baffled his conceptions, derided his feeble powers, and defeat his intents and purposes; thus, in the timidity of his nature, he is taught to fear them, and, in fearing, to throw the veil of mystery over their unseen but manifest operations. The mundane egg of the ancient Egyptians is a beautiful philosophic truth, disguised in the wild romance of Paganism, allegorically portraying the generating powers of the sun and the productive capacities of the earth; but far otherwise are the conceptions of modern geologists, who, while they affect to sneer at these children of Nature, rush into greater absurdities in seeking to obscure the life-giving emanations of the sun by the contemptible light of volcanoes. The interior of the earth is, in fact, a wonderful laboratory for many of our modern worshippers of Pluto, in which the never-failing sword is found to cut the gordian knot woven in the workings of Nature; from this source one draws his stores of lime, another his inexhaustible supplies of hot-water, and numerous others their thousand and one probabilities; in this great hall of the crystals all the crystalline rocks are manufactured, and are protruded upwards, in their beautiful uniformity, and in their grandeur of composition and character; and from these rocks, in decomposition, are produced the sands, pebbles, and clays.

It is a fact well known that gelatinous matter, whether the same be the produce of animal or vegetable life, or is reproduced in the decomposition of bodies, favours the conglomeration of silica and the process of petrification, in all parts of the world, but more particularly so in tropical regions, where animal and vegetable production is in excess; thus it is many springs and rivers, holding in solution these matters, speedily convert organic bodies, and aggregates of bodies, into conglomerate; sometimes the ocean waters possess the like properties, of which the island Ascension is an illustration, where the silicious qualities of the waters are such as to cause the animal and vegetable matters thrown upon the shores to unite in one vast consolidated mass, the like causes, as previously explained, give origin to the petrifications and conglomerates of the Deserts. It is to be observed, that so long as the sands are exposed to the action of heat alone, so long do they continue little unchanged in their parts and qualities; but no sooner do they become exposed to the conjoint affections of heat and moisture, than the changing process becomes apparent—the nature of the change depending on the nature of the material, which is at all times variable; thus the waters, percolating through the sand strata, near the bed of the Nile and other streams and freshets, these sands become saturated throughout a given extent, and the waters, in their turn, become the conductors of the electric action, which, passing through the whole, deposits it to enter into new combinations—the minute particles of sand in aggregate becoming small granular silicious bodies; if there be lime within the mass it aggregates also, towards a given centre in the line of action, and the ultimate result is a vein, or veins, of quartz; the iron also disposes itself in bands, and sometimes gives the sand a lamellated texture; but, if in abundance, it is diffused throughout, being as one with the whole in the several changes. Again, many of the granular particles gradually assume the form of milk quarts, while others, consisting of more indurated admixtures, assume a variety of colours and appearance. As the oxygen of the atmosphere and of the waters enters the mass, as its bulk of aggregate and its specific gravity increases, and in the general expansion of the granular particles cohesion naturally takes place, the crystalline structure being prevented by the pressure and simultaneous expansion of surrounding particles.

To the better understanding of these phenomena of production and progressive change, let those who have opportunities of visiting the British Museum, pause for a short time as they pass through the Egyptian Gallery, and carefully examine the material of the antiquities surrounding them. The figure, No. 4, is sandstone of a fine quality, containing iron; upon examining the back of the head, which is in its natural state, and unaltered by the chisel, it exhibits the phenomena as above mentioned—the granular particles being simply agglutinated, some of them being transparent and crystalline, others variously so, and others, again, of a dull earthy appearance, all, however, firmly united to each other, and in varying stages of change; the front of the figure, which, previous to being quarried, was more highly crystalline, and exhibits, in its bands and zones, the same phenomena, or adaptation of parts, as developed in smaller silicious aggregates, when exposed to the conjoint influences of heat and moisture. Here and there larger aggregates, or nodular concretions, are exhibited, showing also through their successive stages of change, but interrupted by these changes, and, consequently, in the contemplated result, by the rough hand of the quarrymen. Pass on to figure No. 6—here we have what is termed breccia, which geologists will tell you is produced in the decomposition of quartz rock; but this is one of the numerous errors of generalisation which disfigure this otherwise beautiful branch of philosophy. In nature this material is not a like the common coarse gravel of this country, but the aggregate is, perhaps, in a more advanced stage of change, for a petrification, under this latitude, continuous in this state age after age—the cause necessary to effect the change not being in action. The larger aggregates, parting with some portion of their primary material, have become more purely silicious, assuming the crystalline texture; but the result, as one whole, is evidently imperfect, it being simply a conglomeration, and as such readily separable in its parts. Within the mass will be observed aggregates of flint, calcareous, and jasper, and in and through the whole, it will be observed, that the aggregates are of indurated form, and such as is observed in many species of granite; that the quartz is not crystalline, but becomes more translucent in the rearrangement of its minute particles, consequent on the accession of atmospheric air and the decomposition of other products. As the form of the pebbles is now, as was

it previous to its present appearance, when existing independent of its matrix.

It has often been asked—"Do pebbles grow?" They do not, but atomic particles and aggregate, as is exemplified on this large scale, cohere, and form consolidated bodies; thus numerous atomic particles aggregate together, as particles of iron around a magnet, but permanently united by the one common base, and larger aggregates unite as conglomerate, and this conglomerate, acted upon by atmospheric heat, becomes pudding-stone, or other kinds of rock. The rocks, or stones, once crystalline, will not cohere, but under peculiar circumstances, such as the presence of the crystallising waters; but this is often the case in Nature, where two or more beds, for instance, as those which, in ultimate results, are known as granite and gneiss, undergo simultaneous change. Again, in beds of earth or clay, containing lime or iron, the electric matter is conducted into, and awakens chemical action in these compounds, forming calc spar, which embraces at times portions of the earths affected by this action, or otherwise varieties of ironstone, pyrites, &c.

Figure 7 is of fine sandstone, and but slightly adhesive; in No. 8, the sands have many of them become opalescent, or translucent, and crystalline. Upon examining the granites, most of them will be observed of coarse grain, confusedly arranged, exhibiting the like nodular appearance to No. 6, but in a more highly crystalline state. The texture invariably depends on the nature of the primary material from which, and in which, it is produced; thus, if the sands unite with the oceanic marls or calcareous deposits in the process of change, occasioned by atmospheric influences, the result will be a very fine-grained grey granite. The change is a result of long-continued action, perhaps for centuries; and one great reason why fossil remains are so seldom found imbedded in granite is, that sands holding fresh water in union are inimical to the preservation of bodies; but mark the granite material of our London bridges, and other buildings of like nature, and, as is there evidenced, although the fossil body has lost its internal configuration, yet have they the external form and the characteristics of the body in quartz nodules; and not only this, but we have the distinct evidence of fossil bodies enclosed in granite, of highly crystalline texture, before us. In bays and troughs of tropical seas there is always an accumulating fine calcareous deposit, formed and forming, from the comminuted particles of coral and shell-bearing animals, and this marl is sometimes of considerable depth, and invariably free from fossil bodies, unless they be of a nature to resist decomposition; in receiving other matters upon its surface, and being afterwards elevated above the waters, and exposed to tropical influences, it gradually indurates, and the result is exemplified in tomb 17 in this gallery.

Who can look at the two large tomb, and pronounce them to be the products of fusion; they are conglomerates, the decomposed material being of the nature of the tomb above noticed, but including, in its composition, a variety of animal and vegetable remains, the animal bodies having partially decomposed before the crystallising process began, and the aggregates changing, according to their compound qualities, into quartz, felspar, jasper, calcareous, or mica, and simulating with many of the shell marbles, which in general exhibit partial decomposition.

It is well known to the quarrymen of this country, that the granite is softer as it descends into the earth, and that its degree of hardness depends as often upon the nature of its position as upon its peculiar material—that sometimes it may almost be said to be in a state of decomposition, hardening only on exposure to the atmosphere. How do theorists reconcile this with their ideas of central heat, and not only this, but the well-known fact, that the vast portion of our crystalline and translucent bodies acquire this finish by atmospheric action alone? Let us look at the Cornish mines; here the tin sometimes forms full three-fourths of the bulk of aggregate of the granite, being naturally one of its integrals, and containing, in its own body, a large proportion of atmospheric air; like other minerals, it is sometimes found in beds, the same being more or less united with the matrix; it is sometimes found in veins, assuming a polarity of disposition, the electro-chemical action being guided by the veins of quartz or iron which were previously formed in the disintegrated mass, the metallic bases separating from the silicious base, and uniting, as the forces of electric action and affinity direct; it is very often, in like manner with copper and iron, as one with the material, although variably disposed in its quantities; it is, in its native state, blending with inflammable bodies, and which are evidently proximate causes of its production. We will admit that, sometimes it is produced in fissures, and perhaps, too, in natural cavities, in some instances showing its recent origin, but still the fact remains, that tin forms an integral part of granite, together with sulphur and other inflammable products. It is evident that, in this state, it could never have been the subject of heat of fusion, otherwise the usual phenomena would have ensued; instead of veins and lodes, we should have had a strange amalgam of volcanic products, of many metals and earths, the sulphur and other inflammable products being driven off. The few volcanic products are well known to us, as are also the causes of effects produced; here the minerals are forcibly withdrawn from their native beds, and scattered over the surface of the earth, the action being manifest in the result; but in native beds the phenomena speak a different language, an undisturbed strata, and a succession of ages, or, where disturbed, the causes being in general remote from the body acted upon. Admitting that the metal was an after formation, then must we admit a radical change in the matrix, decomposition, and recombination, and admitting it must come to the conclusion that crystalline rocks can be formed by atmospheric heat. Again, the material ejected from craters of volcanoes, it cannot even be pretended, is ever known to be in the crystalline state; it is water, mud, fragments of rock, disengaged gases, or melted material, as the case may be; if, after, on cooling down, it consolidates, and its solid crystalline, but it never assumes the crystalline texture like granite, and the act of crystallising is determined by water or atmospheric action. In the Deserts the phenomena of production are strikingly manifest, even to the ultimate union of the metals with the mineral beds; thus, where sulphur and the oxide of iron abound in the sands, as the latter, in union, assume the granular form, so the like manifest action occasioning this change gradually produces iron pyrites, and the ultimate result is a granite of coarse grain, more or less abounding in iron. Again, manganese enters into the composition of porphyry, generally diffused or locally aggregated.

Our rising generation, thankful for the numerous beautiful facts discovered by the seal and perseverance of geologists, would gladly avail themselves of those facts, under the guidance of men experienced in the ways of Nature; but such can never be the case while they are so interwoven with false inductions, marvellous absurdities, and crude generalisations. Geology is said to be a science of observation, and yet it cannot be received without inductive science, of the truth or falsehood of which the young mind is incapable of judging, and, in the multiplicity of opinions, is little disposed to receive. The object of the inquiring mind is to understand the ways of Nature, and, in understanding, to render her tributary, to a greater extent, to our wants and purposes; but this cannot be done by observing men training their ideas to the prejudices or fashions of the day, or by discouraging all attempts to discover the *modus operandi* of Nature. Men must, of necessity, rely, to a great extent, on the opinions and discoveries of the few, and the same should deter us from drawing largely upon their credulity or fears.

Much stress has been laid upon the increase of temperature of the interior of the earth as we descend, as demonstrated in mines, and in the recent labours of M. Agassiz; upon this head I shall speak more fully hereafter, combating myself at present with observing, that the causes of such increase of temperature, where it is manifest, are inevitable results of chemical combination of atmospheric air with the liberated gases, or combinations of the latter; and if in some of the lowest depths of the earth hitherto arrived at we find a manifest increase of temperature, as, in other depths, we find little or no change, and in some an increase of cold. Did the heat, as conjectured, radiate from the interior of the earth, and increase in ratio, as found in some diggings, then must it, of necessity, be very great at the lower depths of the same, and being so would be manifest. The same phenomena of increase is manifest in the mines of Mexico, 2000 or 3000 feet above the level of the sea, as is manifest in the digging of the Paris basin; now are hot springs, at all times, manifestations of the existence of internal fire, for the waters, in their passage through the earth, of necessity bring together numerous conflicting elements, which, in union, and consequent chemical action, induce heat—and, indeed, nearly all the hot waters, not noted in the vicinity of volcanoes, hold in solution certain mineral bodies; now could we, even were we to ascertain the action of an internal fire, suppose for a moment that these springs were so deeply seated as to be affected by this internal heat. The fact of granite protruding through the overlying beds, furnishes

but a lame argument for the Plutonist, for we have only to look at the unequal distribution of matter within the ocean bed, to be convinced of its fallacy. Supposing, for illustration, we take the Phenomena of Production, as now going on in tropical seas; here, in the increase of oceanic matter submarine hills and chains of hills are formed, the great rivers bringing down their periodical sum of terrestrial matters, and these matters are deposited in the valleys, thus encircling the lower portion of the hills, which, still increasing, continue to stand above the increasing periodical deposits; sometimes, where these elevations are superficial, the deposits may cover them entirely. In after ages, when this portion of the earth is elevated above the waters, the submarine hills, in its series of changes, pass into granite, or some other species of rock, and the deposited material, being the debris of terrestrial and oceanic matters, in its ultimate consolidation, becomes schistose; the material brought together by the accidents of local circumstances undergoes a variety of changes in its parts and quantities, the disposition of compounds being regulated by the forces of affinity, cohesion, and lateral pressure of surrounding particles, the end marked out being attained when the operations of Nature are undisturbed, matter being at all times the subject of surrounding influences.

The granite of the valleys of the Deserts partake, in general, more of the nature of sandstone than do the granites of the mountains, which latter contain a greater variety of compound bodies; they are also domed-shaped, or in large conglomerate masses, without any true geometrical form; but the granites of the mountains very often present their perpendicular faces to the plains and valleys, and extend in parallel or curvilinear lines, in the like manner of the limestone ranges; their appearance above the waters being naturally accounted for in the constant decrease of the waters from the surface of the earth, the material of the waters becoming the material of consolidated bodies—their consolidation and increasing specific gravity, and ultimate crystallisation, being induced by the union of the uniform, aqueous, and gaseous bodies with each other, united and uniting with silica, which, but slightly affected by these changes, acts as the common bond of union or cement of the whole. The sands with larger concretions being the chief, and, sometimes, the sole material of many species of granite, and being capable, under numerous affections, of assuming this state ultimately, it should not be made a matter of surprise that the granite should be found in the lowest depths with which we are acquainted; but was I, in imitation of others, to enter into speculations on this matter, I should certainly hazard the opinion that the granites of the lower beds almost invariably rest upon sands or sandstone, or gradually pass into that material.

The assertion of geologists, that the whole of the upper crust of the earth rests on a granitic floor, is purely hypothetical, and not only unwarranted, but expressly contradicted by every day's discoveries. From all that we can observe of the nature and composition of this planetary body, we find no efficient reason to generalise on single phenomenon; the numerous beds of the earth are all variably disposed, without order or disposition, beyond that which is of necessity produced by long-continued local action, and all of them affecting, or affected, by contiguous beds, as their nature, and the action manifest, may determine. The lowest beds have been found granitic, but the extent of these beds is comparatively nothing to the more frequent phenomena of sands and sandstone. If men are to be permitted to generalise in this manner, on local facts, there will be no end to the vain imaginings of those who have the ambition to become founders of systems, and, as is exemplified in this instance, of necessity, blind leaders of the blind. The late researches into the strata of the United States of America, shows that, although granite is common both above and below the surface, the sands, limestones, and marls, of various kinds, are by far the most abundant, and the like results are manifest in all other quarters of the globe. Where, I would ask, is this granitic floor, and at what depth is it to be found in the Deserts? the greatest depths ever arrived at in search of water give crystalline rocks lying upon sand, sandstone, calcareous strata, marls, and sometimes beds of salt; and, in the Suez Desert, we find a granite resting on a bed of clay, all these crystalline rocks resting in an undisturbed strata. Positive assertion in this matter, even when based on superficial observation, cannot be received as positive proof; but it is certain that this granitic floor has never been reached, and it is equally certain, in despite of the carrying powers of the waters, and of ice, that many of the granitic formations, embracing vast areas, are based upon other species of beds.

The late experiments of M. Agassiz, in digging for hot water in the Paris basin, as it is termed, are anything but gratifying to those theorists, or to the observing public—originating in a false conception of the phenomena of Nature, they have ended, as all such experiments must end, in mortification and disappointment to those who were so sanguine of success; they found no granitic floor, no hot water, and the increasing heat in descent was such only as to show the utter futility, not to say absurdity, of theoretic calculation on local phenomena. But the lesson is lost upon the Geological Magi, who, in their crusade against Nature, are continually found stumbling on discoveries, which immediately are arrayed in evidence against their systems. The like fatality attends mining adventures, who if not fortunately prevented by the waters, or by the increasing expense, would continue their labours *ad infinitum*, although in the production of metals, as in the production of rock, there is always a limit defined by Nature.

The very term "volcanic product" is, in fact, an absurdity, for whatever is ejected from the mouth of a volcano has an equal right to this term, if it is to be applied; thus, many of the volcanoes of the earth eject vegetable earth as mud, streams of water—and Humboldt assures us that fish are very often cast forth in these torrents, being of the same kinds as found in the neighbouring lakes. Again, there are fragments of rocks, metallic bodies, scoriae, the skeletons of rock, as pumice, and melted matter; admitting that the latter concentrates and assumes the form of rock, as it sometimes does, still the material is known to us in all its stages of change, of decomposition, and recombination, as being the product of inner, and generally of superficial, beds of the earth, ever varying in its nature, the action manifest uniting or destroying all bodies coming within its influence; the act of the fire is to displace and not to produce; now does it produce other than obsidian, lava, volcanic scoriae, &c.; we might, with equal foundation, apply the like term to the ashes of our grates, and to all works of man or ornament made with the agency of heat.

That much of the lava, on analysis, corresponds with the material of granite is very natural to suppose, for of such is the composition of all rocks; but this fact is in direct negation to the theory of volcanic rocks, for if this material was ejected from the molten matter of the interior of the earth, then must we suppose such matter to be uniform, or nearly so, while in its state of fusion; and if the crater be a mere safety-valve, the matter ejected must also be uniform; but such is not the case, for as is recorded by numerous observers, the molten matters ejected at each eruption of a volcano invariably differ in composition and character. Again, when the nature the composition of granite it is superficial, and seldom descends to any considerable depth, air being one of the chief ingredients; but when compared to its composition the metal is deep seated, water being one of its chief ingredients; but in the recent lavas we find neither the one nor the other, and the more ancient lavas generally gradually decompose as they become exposed to atmospheric influence. But, say geologists, the causes of effects manifest as granite have ceased; but still volcanic action is manifest in various parts of the world. Again, they say that granite is the central crust, thrown up by expansion of some portion of the inner circle; but, if so, why this infinite variety in its composition and character? Every child of science is now aware that like causes produce like effects, and, therefore, it is that if like causes were formerly manifest, like effects must, of necessity, have been produced.

HOT SPRINGS IN AFRICA.—A memoir was read at a late meeting of the Paris Academy of Sciences, by M. Combes, "On the Sulphureous Hot Springs of Homongou Koumbi, near Bica, in Africa," which states that they burst forth on a small plateau, covered by a white crust of the mineral matter deposited by their water, and they form round each spring small cones, from the summits of which the water flows. Their average heat is from 78 to 80 degrees of Reaumur, or from 107 to 112 Fahrenheit—boiling point. It is only 100 or 200 paces from the spot where the waters of these springs join a mountain stream of cold water that their heat becomes reduced enough to allow of people bathing in them; they are highly sulphureous, and send up immense clouds of steam.

"**ART GEMS.**"—The celebrated "old gold," which has attracted the attention of travellers in the East, of late, is found extensively in the region between the Himsheps Mountains and Thibet, where it appears in the shape of a mineral calcification from the rock in which it is deposited.

THE MINING JOURNAL,
Railway and Commercial Gazette.

LONDON, MARCH 19, 1842.

The great space necessarily occupied by our notice of the proposed new tariff, as affects mines and minerals, interferes much with our proposed arrangements. We can only express our regret at not being able to comply with the wishes of several correspondents, by giving insertion to their communications, but, in order to prevent further disappointment to them, and to clear off arrears of valuable miscellaneous papers, which we have from time to time received, we purpose publishing, with our next Number an additional sheet.

SOCIETY.	PLACE OF MEETING.	DAY.	HOOR.
Artistic	14, Griffin street	Saturday	3 p. m.
Botanical	4, St. Martin's place	Monday	8 p. m.
Chemical	Bull court, Fleet street	Monday	8 p. m.
Classical	55, Berners street	Tuesday	8 p. m.
Legal Medical and Chir.	26, Great George street	Tuesday	8 p. m.
of Engineers	57, Pall mall	Wednesday	7 p. m.
Mineralogical	Adelphi	Wednesday	8 p. m.
Study of Africa	Barnard street	Thursday	4 p. m.
University of Literature	St. Martin's place	Thursday	7 p. m.
and Natural History Society	Barnard House	Thursday	4 p. m.
of Botanical	Regent's park	Saturday	8 p. m.
of Anatomical Medicine	Exeter Hall	Saturday	8 p. m.
of Chemistry	Clarendon street, Southampton	Saturday	8 p. m.

British Gas Light Company	11, George y.d. Lombard st. March 28	1
Ch. Wk. Charlotte Mining Assoc.	George and Vulture Tavern	29
Canada Company Company	Canada House	30
Cambrian Iron and Spelter Co.	11, Morgate street	31
Edwin Steam Navigation Co.	11, Morgate street	31
Grand North of England Railway	Northgate, Darlington April	3
West London Railway	Northgate, Darlington	3
Heckle Tin Mining Company	11, Abchurch lane	7
Margate Pier and Harbour Co.	George and Vulture Tavern	7
Roseberry Iron and Coal Co.	Margate	11
	London Tavern	29

British and Colonial Railway	21.	March	31.	Barnet, Hoare, and Co.
Northern Coal Mining Company	21.	March	31.	Newcastle Joint Stock Bank.
Northern and Eastern Railway	21.	April	7.	Masterman and Co.
Stonessford and Lambeth Docks	21.	10a.	6.	London and County Bank.
Miner's Green Mining Company	21.	12.	12.	Barnley, Bawn, and Co.
Miners' Company	21.	12.	12.	Glyn and Co., of office.
Fish Waste Land and Ice Society	21.	12.	12.	As former calls.
Cannikin Iron and Spelter Co.	21.	17.	17.	As former calls.
DIVIDENDS.				
London and Croydon Railway	2a, 6d. per sh.	As former calls.	March	31.
London Bank	6 per cent.	2, Basinghall-st.	April	11.
Bank of Australia	4 per cent.	2, Moorogate street.	11.	

With reference to the North of England, we attend more particularly to that part of Northumberland which has north of Tyne-mouth and reaches to Alnwick, with a considerable breadth to the westward, and the exploiting of coal mines for the purposes of exportation has been equally extensive in the county of Durham, within our harbours, one at Wearmouth, in Northumberland, and one at Hartlepool, in Durham, have been made by private funds to serve as a standard exportation of coal. These two ports, which are situated on the north of the Tyne, have been constructed and equipped, and the ship that is duty, which has been an edition to itself, and an appreciation upon the expansive industry of the country, would never be so mounted.

Two English companies alone have embarked a capital of £12,000,000 in establishing the system of gas lighting on the continent—an enterprise which, inasmuch as it has been attended with a considerable exportation of English manufactures, as well as English coal, a large and totally new employment for British shipping, and a contribution to this country of the revenue derived from the gas light, has added materially to the aggregate profits and expansion of the country, and has, in consequence, been the cause of the most important and successful of steam navigation, the basis and support of the new undertakings which have been ordered since in the coal fields of the north of England.

There is no doubt that coal imports, mutually dependent upon each other, will be drastically curtailed, if not totally annihilated, by a prevarication in the proposed legislation of a duty of six pence on English coal, and even such a duty has declined upon any consideration of the value of the action. The highest price charged for coal imported from Germany is 20 pence per ton, the highest price for coal imported from the United States is 15 pence per ton. A duty of six pence will certainly enhance the cost more than 20 per cent. upon an average price. The proposed duty would not so great a disadvantage to steam navigation, and as a heavy duty on the foreign trade of the country carried on by steam communication.

It is contended, that with the exception of Holland and Russia, few, if any, men are acquainted with manufacturing men, but that the bulk consists of men acquainted with agriculture, and that the bulk of the population are engaged in agriculture. It is also said, that in Holland and the principal seat of English wool, after the good works are supplied in the districts, and that manufacturing, weaving, &c. while in Russia, Petersburg is supplied with good wool from the English companies, and after that the principal seat of the wool is in the hands of the Russian companies, so that the principal quantities sent directly to Great Britain are supplied by the Russian companies. On the one part, of distant countries, and of English subjects. In Holland, moreover, it should be remembered that it is well known that English wool is not sent to Holland, but that it has been established by orders of the Government of a Dutch colony, that the wool is sent to the Dutch colonies.

[illegible][illegible]

The proposed tariff, or alteration in the duties on foreign produce imported into this country, submitted to Parliament by Sir ROBERT PEEL as a Government measure, has created a sensation throughout the country, unexampled, we may say, for the past half century. It is sufficient for us to confine our attention to the ores, metals, and manufactures of foreign production, on which it is proposed to reduce the import duty, and on the present occasion we shall confine our remarks to tin, copper, and spelter, reserving until a future Number the several other products.

It is manifest that the object of Government is to alter all duties which approach to, or partake of, a prohibitory nature, and to place instead such as will admit of foreign ores, metals, or manufactures, coming into this country—not fairly competing with ours, but holding out those advantages which, as a financial measure, on the part of Government, will bring "grist to the mill," forgetful that, in obtaining a revenue by an import duty on foreign ores and metals, they, at the same time, throw thousands out of employment—they destroy property, by the suspension or abandonment of mines—and they inflict an injury on this country, which

shows its prosperity to its production, which can never be repaired. That the tariff has been drawn up by parties ignorant of the subjects on which they had to legislate, cannot be more readily demonstrated than by taking the metals tin and spelter; in the former, as we shall presently prove, the duty on metallic tin is reduced to 10*l.* per ton, on which the British miner would rely in fancied security, while tin ore of 75 per cent. produce is admitted at 1*l.* per ton, or 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* the ton of metallic tin. In spelter the error is more gross, although we are told—but not officially—by way of apology, that it was a mistake; it will be seen that ore valued at 5*l.* or 6*l.* per ton, cake spelter 37*l.*, rolled zinc at 49*l.*, and manufactured articles at 80*l.* to 100*l.* per ton, are all set down at the uniform duty of 1*l.* per ton, thus destroying our home manufacture. Many errors, although not so palpable, are evidenced throughout the tariff, and renders it a matter of regret that Government should not have availed themselves of that information which could have been acquired, and would readily have been afforded, by practical men.

With reference to copper, we have no hesitation in saying, that the question is far from being understood, as to the comparative position of the Cornish and foreign mines, or they would never have adopted the scale of duty which we find inserted in the tariff. In the first place, we would ask whether the distinction between *ore* and *regulus* is understood, for, to those conversant with mining, it is well known that the Chili *ores*, as they are designated in the Ticketing Paper, and so adopted by Government, come over here in the shape of *regulus*, or semi-metal, and yet they are to be sub-

jected only to the duty imposed on *ores*—that of 5 per cent. It may be said, that, as it is *ad valorem*, no matter what the produce—but here we are at issue with Government—the object, say Government, is to protect our *manufactures* (not *mines*, be it observed), and, by allowing foreign *ores* to come into this country to be smelted for exportation, or consumption, we put forward a measure which must have the effect of encouraging and upholding the smelting and manufacturing interest—while they forget that, while *ores* average, say, 22 per cent., the *regulus* comes in at 60 to 65 per cent. produce, and thus anticipates, by labour abroad, the advantages which Sir R. PEARCE would contemplate deriving from such *ores* being smelted in this country. The result may be readily foreseen—nine-tenths of the mines in Cornwall, and other districts, will be abandoned, and, consequently, the like proportion of the population of that county be thrown out of employment. Government may depend upon it, that, however strongly they may support and uphold the Whig Poor Law, they will meet with so strong an opposition in the West from the landholders and lords of mines, who, like the miners, will adopt the Cornish motto, and unite "one and all," that it will be a fearful day, when thousands, and tens of thousands, are thrown out of employ, and have no resource but that of application to the "Union."

We may instance the returns from some of the principal mines in Cornwall as illustrative of our position, as to the consequences which must attend any reduction in the price of copper, or, rather to use a term more immediately associated with mining, "the standard." The Consolidated Mines, we believe, made a dividend for the past two months of 1500*l*., although the actual profits did not amount to more than 1200*l*., with ores selling at a standard of 125. Now, assuming ore of 8 produce at a standard of 125, it would give 7*l*. 5*s*. per ton; but, if a drop of 15 takes place, we should find that ore of the same produce, at the standard of 110, would only return 6*l*. 1*s*. per ton, or a difference of 2*s*. per ton. To those unacquainted with mines it would appear somewhat strange, that a mere drop, or falling off in the standard of 15 in 125, should cause a depression in the price of ore of one-seventh; but such is the case; the consequence of which would be, that on the produce of the Consolidated Mines—say 1000 tons per month—the difference would be 1200*l*., which would leave a loss of 600*l*. per month instead of the profit cited. So many facts and arguments press upon us in the consideration of the question, that we hardly know which first to take, but, as the subject must be one of continued attention, we proceed to those points which at the moment more readily present themselves to our notice.

If then, the Consolidated Mines are thus placed by a decline in the standard, what are we to say to the Tresavean, Carn Brea, Flower Consols, Llevant, and other copper mines? or to Wheal Vor, Charlestown, Great Work, and other tin mines? Is it to be expected that they can stand, if foreign ores be imported for home consumption without a fair protective duty being given to the English miner? As regards the poor mines, they must go as a matter of course, and this must have been contemplated by Mr. McGowan, or whoever cut up the tariff, if he possesses an iota of knowledge on the subject on which he submitted measures for Parliament to legislate. In the Consolidated Mines no less than 600,000*l.* is expended monthly; Tresavean, say 400,000*l.*; Carn Brea, 400,000*l.*; Flower Consols, 600,000*l.*—thus, in these four mines alone, employing not less than 6000 individuals, upwards of 240,000,000*l.* is expended annually, of which 50,000,000*l.* may be said to go for materials, cast-ings, iron, coal, timber, rope, and powder, forming the principal items, the residue being expended in labour. We shall most weakly leave our readers the exact *data*, with other details, having merely charged the memory with the preceding figures.

As a further illustration, were such necessary for our object, to prove the injustice done to the home miner, or to render more clear the relative positions of foreign and British mines, we avail ourselves of a private letter received within the past few days, dated Cuba, late in January, in which we are informed that the quantity of ore raised by six men in a fortnight was 160 tons, of a produce of 22 per cent.—being equal to 320 tons per month. If we compare the working a mine in the county Cornwall with this return, we shall find that the quantity of ore required to be raised (taking the average produce of the country at 5), so as to realise an equal amount in money for metallic copper contained therein, would be 1260 tons—a return equal to the produce of the Consolidated Mines, by which employment is afforded to at least from 1200 to 1300 individuals—a very striking contrast it must be admitted.

15s. per ton—instead of the ore being smelted in bond, and shipped to foreign markets. Now, it is quite clear, the effect of this alteration will be, that copper in foreign markets will go up—copper at home will go down—Government will obtain its 5 per cent. on all foreign ore, or, on the imports of last year, in round numbers, at the rate of 35,000*l.* per annum—and our home mines will be sacrificed. Admitting the new tariff to come into force, foreign copper could, with equal advantage to the foreign miner, be sold here at 5*l.* 15s. per ton less than that obtained for the produce of our Cornish mines, or, even say 5*l.*, would be equal to a reduction of 8s. per ton on every ton of ore of the average produce of 8; and, again, referring to the Consolidated Mines, the difference on the returns of 1000 tons per month would at once reduce the value of the ores raised 400*l.* per month, or about 5000*l.* per annum.

There is another question, however, with reference to copper ore, of which the Government and their advisers (if any) seem to have lost sight—it is that of the impracticability of smelting foreign ores without the admixture of those produced in this country, while the fact is notorious, that the ores of our home mines can be smelted without the aid of foreign ores. What would be done with ores and regulus, ranging from 30 to 60 per cent., were it not that the poor ores were mixed, as we believe that invariably the ore necessary for the manufacture of one ton of cake copper is 9 to 10 tons, the process of smelting not having arrived at that perfection, which will admit of ore of greater produce being smelted alone. This fact, in itself, should be sufficient for our home mines to contest the proposed alteration in duty, as the foreign miner is not only indebted to us for the coal with which to smelt his ore, but a mixture of a poorer class, whereby he can reduce it into cake copper of a commercial value.

Having, for or present purpose, sufficiently discussed the question of copper, and which will be found hereafter treated upon more in detail, we proceed to the consideration of tin. In this article, as regards white (or block) tin, the duty is reduced from 15*l*. to 10*l*.—a reduction which, although not affording sufficient protection to the English miner, we will pass over, to arrive at one of those egregious errors committed in the arrangement of the pro-

It will be seen that the duty on foreign tin ore, which was fixed at 10¢ per ton, is now reduced to 1¢, so that the proposed duty is a mere farce, if looked upon in any other light than a boon to the manufacturers and consumers. In spelter, the ore, metal, and manufactured goods are all placed at one duty, that on metal being reduced 50 per cent.—a reduction perfectly uncalled for, and which, from the state of the spelter market, we have no hesitation in saying, will not diminish the price of the article to the consumer, while it gives 1¢ per ton profit to the foreign miner.

We now approach the metals tin, copper, and spelter, which we shall take *seriatim*. TIN.

Present duty.....	15s. per cwt., or 15 <i>l.</i> per ton
Proposed duty.....	10s. " 10 <i>l.</i> "

Confining the question to the import of tin alone, the reduced duty may be said to resolve itself into the consideration, whether it affords a sufficient protection to the home miner—

The present price of tin we will assume at.....	£72	0	0	per ton
The import duty added thereto, of.....	10	0	0	„

Will give..... \$82 0 0

at which price it can now only compete with British tin, at the present market prices, and, in fact, affording to such extent a protective duty—that is, assuming that the cost of extraction, carriage, freight, and all other expenses, are the same abroad as those in England. On the other hand, assuming that foreign tin can be raised, shipped, and imported into this country at 50*l.* per ton, the addition of 10*l.* per ton duty, gives a price which would be remunerative to the foreign miners less than that obtained for the produce of our home mines of 13*l.* per ton. We need hardly repeat, that, in this, as in other cases, the figures are nominal, the object being to illustrate the position of our home and foreign mines. The greater importance to be attached to the reduction of duty, in the introduction of foreign tin into our market, appears to us, however, to be with regard to the duty imposed, or, rather, proposed, on tin ore, in which an error, equally egregious as that affecting spelter (only in an opposite direction), has been fallen into. We will, therefore, proceed to

TIN ORE.		
The present duty is	10s.	per cwt., or 10 <i>l.</i> per ton
The proposed duty ¹	1s.	" " 1 <i>l.</i> "
Reduction	9s.	" " 9 <i>l.</i> "

As foreign (black tin, or) tin ore produces 70 to 75 per cent. of metal, it follows that one and one-third ton of ore is equal to one ton of metallic tin—the duty on the ore required for the manufacture of which.

At the present rate, is £13 6 8 per ton of metal
By the proposed reduction the duty is. 1 6 8 per ton

Or difference of..... £12 6 8 per ton
in favour of foreign tin ore being imported, in preference to metallic tin, under the proposed tariff. Comparing, then,

TIN, AND TIN ORE.
We find that the former (foreign) is reduced. 5d. per ton

—thus raising the question, whether it is for the interest of the fa-

foreign miner to smelt his produce into this country in the shape of *ore* or *blond tin*, it being evident that a bonus of *sd.* 13s. 4d. per ton on the metallic tin is held out to him by the transportation of ore, instead of reducing it abroad. In arriving at this conclusion, we assume that tin can be manufactured in this country equally as cheap as in the Straits. The duty, under such circumstances, it will be seen, is—

Foreign block, or manufactured, tin	£10	0	0	per ton
1½ ton ore (equal to 1 ton metallic tin), at 20s..	1	6	0	"

—thus showing, if the premises be correct, that the British miner will have to contend with foreign ore rather than foreign tin, and

that the only protecting duty for the home miner, if foreign and British ore have to compete, is 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* per ton on white tin, or less than 2 per cent. There is another view which may be taken, and which it is only right to notice:—

Suppose 1½ ton tin ore imported, at duty of 20s. per ton	£1 6 8
Add thereon freight, at 25s. per ton	1 13 4
Give the cost of freight and duty on 1 ton metallic tin	£3 0 6

If, again, we take -
 1 ton metallic tin - import duty \$10 0 0
 To which add freight 1 5 0 - 11 5 0

We shall still find a difference in favour of the importation of tin ore of - per ton £8 5 9

by those interested in our home mines.

The position assumed by those interested in the importation of foreign ores, including the smelter and manufacturer, is that under the present system, the duty being prohibitory, all foreign copper ores are smelted in bond, and the copper, or metallic product, being exported to foreign markets, excludes the produce of our home mines—hence the differences existing under the present system in the price in foreign markets of copper smelted in

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A TABLE, showing the Present Duty imposed on all Foreign and British Ores, Minerals, and Metals, imported into Great Britain, with the amount of Duties received in 1840, together with the several proposed Reductions, and the Duty to be fixed in lieu thereof, with Calculations on the Reductions so made:—

Before the promulgation of the tariff, we have been actively engaged in directing the attention of those interested in miners to the main features which it presents, and it will be satisfactory to all miners and mine adventurers, to learn, that a committee has been formed in London, for watching over, and protecting, the British mining interest, who are now actively engaged in collecting statistical information and facts, with the view of submitting them at a general meeting, contemplated to be held immediately after the Easter recess, in the meantime, our friends in Cornwall are at all, as we shall, from a letter received by this morning's post, at a general meeting of the mining interest is convened for the 15th instants, to be held at Andrews's Hotel, Brompton.

* The decrease cannot be shown from the alterations in duty from per cwt., or ton, to per cent., and vice versa. † Plus the Warlike duty on the proposed tariff.

COMMONWALL.				FOUR WALLS.			
Three years ending June, 1961	Time.	Average price.	Amount.	Three years ending June, 1961	Time.	Average price.	Amount.
	004,187	40 4 0	1,657,000 0 0		100,869	40 4 0	4,145,700

Division of Sales for Six Months ending 31st December, 1944.

Products of Sales for Six Months ending 31st December, 1941 :—

ENGLISH ORES SOLD IN CORNWALL.							FOREIGN ORES SOLD AT SWANSEA.					
1941.	Tons.	At price.	Standard.	Produce.	Value exp.	Amount money.	1941.	Tons.	Money.	Total tons.	Total money.	
July 1	4950	2 5 0	100 10 0	7	000 12 0	27,900 0 0	June 30	Cuba ore	100	23,077 0 0		
" 6	5050	2 5 0	100 10 0	61	319 15	19,100 10 0	" "	Chili	240	11,000 7 0		
" 20	3034	6 10 0	100 10 0	78	330 5	19,980 11 0	July 14	Cuba	980	12,007 11 0	1007	23,087 0
" 29	3759	5 10 0	100 11 0	7	000 5	11,950 0 0	" "	Chili	354	17,670 10 0		
Aug. 5	3107	5 10 0	101 10 0	78	331 10	10,100 10 0	" 22	Cuba	1507	10,507 10 0	1000	24,593 7
" 13	3000	6 0 0	101 8 0	78	300 10	10,000 0 0	" "	Chili	200	10,000 0 0		
" 19	1404	6 0 0	115 10 0	0	100 0	10,170 0 0	Aug. 13	Chili			1000	25,593 7
" 26	3030	5 17 0	100 9 0	61	301 11	10,000 10 0	" 20	Cuba	904	11,101 7 0	1011	26,694 0
Sept. 3	4850	5 10 0	100 9 0	0	000 15	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	100	9,999 9 0		
" 9	3421	6 17 0	105 1 0	78	331 10	10,007 10 0	Sept. 6	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	26,694 0
" 20	5100	6 11 0	101 9 0	78	330 10	10,011 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
" 30	3779	6 0 0	100 10 0	0	000 10	10,000 10 0	Oct. 6	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	27,694 0
Nov. 7	3000	6 10 0	100 10 0	0	000 10	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
" 14	3116	6 10 0	107 10 0	70	354 10	10,000 0 0	Nov. 10	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	28,694 0
" 21	3410	7 14 0	100 0 0	0	000 10	10,000 10 0	Dec. 6	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	29,694 0
" 29	3000	6 0 0	100 10 0	70	354 10	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
Dec. 4	3010	6 0 0	100 10 0	70	354 10	10,000 10 0	Jan. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	30,694 0
" 11	1700	6 10 0	100 10 0	0	000 10	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
" 18	3004	7 0 0	107 10 0	70	354 10	10,000 10 0	Feb. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	31,694 0
" 25	3010	6 0 0	100 10 0	0	000 10	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
Jan. 5	3005	5 10 0	100 10 0	0	000 10	10,000 10 0	Mar. 10	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	32,694 0
" 9	3105	6 11 0	104 10 0	70	354 10	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
" 20	3110	6 10 0	104 10 0	70	354 10	10,000 10 0	Apr. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	33,694 0
" 30	3110	6 0 0	107 0 0	61	300 15	10,000 10 0	" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
Sub. exp.						27,900 0 0	May 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	34,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							June 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	35,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							July 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	36,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							Aug. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	37,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							Sept. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	38,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							Oct. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	39,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							Nov. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	40,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
							Dec. 1	Cuba	1000	10,000 10 0	1000	41,694 0
							" "	Chili	50	9,999 9 0		
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1990

ORIGINAL CORRESPONDENCE.

NEW TARIFF—FOREIGN COPPER ORES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—The proposition of Government to admit foreign copper ores, whose produce may be sold in England for home consumption, on the payment of 5 per cent. only, and to reduce the duty on foreign bar copper from 27l. to 19l. per ton. Now, the principle which Sir Robert has adopted is not, perhaps, objectionable, but the rate of duty is most decidedly so; and I trust, therefore, that those most deeply interested in the question will represent the matter in the proper quarter in its true light, and convince the Government that the plan proposed, if adopted, will ultimately be the cause of the stoppage of many of our mines, at present producing largely, but not profitably, and employing a very great number of the lower classes; and then, let me ask, in case of a war, whence shall our manufacturers, and the Navy Board, derive their supply? If a fixed duty deserve the condemnation it has so justly received on the corn question, equally deserving is it of the same fate on the question of foreign ores; and I shall be surprised, indeed, if the Minister do not so view it on reconsidering the matter. The 5 per cent. on ores from Cuba is a mere nothing, compared with the additional price the ore will obtain hereafter (under the new tariff); and, with respect to the ore from Chili, the effect of the new duty will be to drive the miners there to the erecting of furnaces, and smelting the poor ore into regulus, and an increase of furnaces there will lead to coal mining, which the late accounts report to be a favourite speculation already. Many other objections may be started, which you, of course, will supply in your remarks on the Minister's new tariff, and, therefore, for the present, I would suggest a duty of 5 per cent. on ores under 20 per cent., 7½ per cent. from 20 to 25, 10 per cent. from 25 to 30, and all above 30 per cent., with an additional 10 per cent. on the amount of duty whenever copper sells under 95l. per ton, and 10 per cent. off when copper yields more than 110l.—the price of copper might be governed by the Government purchases.

Hoping you will lend your powerful aid to serve so important an interest from impending ruin, I am, Sir, yours, &c.,

Strand, March 17.

AN ADVENTURER.

PRESENT STATE OF THE IRON TRADE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—In a tabular statement of the number of furnaces in this kingdom, published in your Journal of the 5th inst., I perceive, under the head "South Wales," that the "Clydach Works" are represented as belonging to the "Blacon Company." This is not so; the Clydach Works belong to the "Clydach Iron Company," and are wholly unconnected with any other.

Clydach Iron Works, Aberystwyth, March 12.

A SUBSCRIBER.

ON THE NATURE AND QUALITIES OF SULPHUR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—I beg to thank you for placing in such a prominent position my humble endeavours to draw attention to what I consider a subject of great interest and importance, as you have done by devoting a leading article to remarks upon it in the Journal of March 12. In reply to your remarks on my letter of the 8th, as impugning the accuracy of your statements with reference to the cost of Sicilian sulphur, I beg to state that I relied more upon facts than figures, not being in possession of data to calculate the cost in Sicily I took the price which I had paid for the article in England. In my letter of the 9th of March I state that I had bought Sicilian sulphur duty paid in England at 4l. 10s. per ton (if my memory serves me correctly, in the spring of the year 1827). I admit the possibility of that parcel having been sold at a loss, and state further, that I never afterwards bought it so low. I therefore concluded I might safely take the price of 4l. 10s. as a minimum price, and that, as freight, duty, and charges could not be fairly taken at less than 2l. 5s., no more than that sum would be left for the shipping price in Sicily. I may here remark, that I have frequently bought parcels of sulphur, duty paid, at 5l. to 5l. 5s., which induced me to hazard the opinion that you had estimated the cost in Sicily as too high when you named 4l. A variety of circumstances might account for the article being sold at a price below the actual cost, such as having been taken in haste for another article upon which a large profit had been made, and the desire to realize at a time when the market for sulphur was depressed by a great accumulation of stock. I shall be glad to find that the actual cost in Sicily is higher than I had laid my accounts for; and I should rejoice, too, in seeing the present import duty of 10s. raised to 5l., not that my proposed speculation requires any such addition to make it pay, but as an impulse to induce capitalists to embark in a novel undertaking. In all such cases I consider it prudent to take a minimum price as the basis of calculation. Should an opportunity present itself, I shall be prepared to prove the efficiency and simplicity of the process, and the purity of the article, but you must excuse me for acting with due caution until I secure to myself some portion of the benefits.

Lewellyn, March 15.

T. H. LAIBTON.

PRESSURE-ENGINE & WATER WHEELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—In reading my pressure-engine calculations in your Journal of the 15th inst., I find that gentlemen who are not practically acquainted with the mode of calculating the power may be led into confusion, considering it abstract through a small error. In my way of pressure calculation, compared with Mr. Budge's wheel calculation, I find that a thirty-foot wheel is far superior to a thirty-foot pressure—for instance, say thirty-foot pressure, 125 feet water per stroke

deduct for pressure friction thirty feet, or three 125—300 left—consequently a thirty-foot pressure could only be working up and down strokes performing no duty; add a load to it and it would immediately stop; but 125 feet of water to one revolution over a thirty-foot wheel, three-foot crank (same proportion as a five-foot crank would be for a 40-foot wheel), would raise sixteen feet of water fifty feet high, or one foot of water, containing about six gallons, 133 fathoms high; please, therefore, correct the following errors—viz., a 40-foot pressure 125 feet per stroke, should be "deduct thirty feet, or three-fifths" 75—30, instead of "deduct 30 feet." Also, a 100-foot pressure 125 feet per stroke, should be "deduct thirty feet, or three-fifths" 37½—87½, instead of "deduct 30 feet."

Scientific practical men will not require this explanation, but I beg to correct this erroneous error in order to make it more intelligible.

Carmarthen, March 14.

P. V. W.

IMPROVEMENTS IN THE ASCENT AND DESCENT OF DEEP MINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—In your valuable Journal of the 15th inst. I peruse a letter from a Newcastle friend, signed "M. D." on the subject of machinery for the ascent and descent of mines. "M. D." has drawn a plan of the bones which he states are working in his district for conveying to the surface the produce of the mine and the people, and which we conclude is worked by rope or chain. It is said that nothing can exceed this apparatus in safety and precision, even at the rate of 100 fathoms per minute. This sort of machine may do for a coal mine, where, perhaps, there may not be more than two or three coal veins, not more than fifty men at work—which is quite different to the deep shafts in our Cornish mines. In many places, and in the Fowey Consols there are from ten to twenty landing places, or levels, in a shaft 200 fathoms deep, consequently this sort of machine, from a reasonable calculation, in our shafts would take four minutes to discharge one ton. Supposing there be two workings in one shaft, and notwithstanding "M. D." has not stated the number these bones move, I will assume they may be made to contain six persons, therefore, after this rate, six men only would be landed every four minutes.

Now, I should suppose that "M. D." is not aware of the number of men that go down our large mines every morning—the instance, in Fowey Consols there are about 200 at the first cage, and nearly 200 that returned their comrades at six o'clock, consequently, by "M. D.'s" sort of apparatus, it would take about two hours and thirteen minutes in our shafts to draw up or send down 200 men, and which would be a rate quite too slow, considering the different landing places or galleries. Now, "M. D." states that the one should be worked around in Cornish Mines to two slow and dangerous, and will not answer. I do not speak on positive, nor am I so presumptuous as to fancy that any plan that I might be a

party to in proposing would, or could not, be excelled. I cannot say but that I differ in opinion from "M. D." altogether as to the sort of machine best to be applied in the deep Cornish mines, notwithstanding I agree partly with him as to Trevelyan, that it is dangerous and complicated; but, while he thinks it too slow, I consider it too fast, and contend that one rod working in the shaft, as per plan and model by Mr. West and myself, now in the Polytechnic Hall, Falmouth, is far less complicated, less dangerous, and less expensive than two rods, and that one rod working six twelve-foot strokes per minute, for 200 fathoms in length, would bring up or send down men in seventeen minutes, which is fast enough for the miner to ascend or descend. It may be seen by our plan that 100 men may be coming up on one side of the rod while another 100 men are going down the other, yet but 100 on the rod at a time, each stopping alternately, while the rod goes the up and down stroke, on fixed rollers in the shaft, which would prepare them for the next lift, and prevent a sickness, which two rods in constant motion would very likely produce.

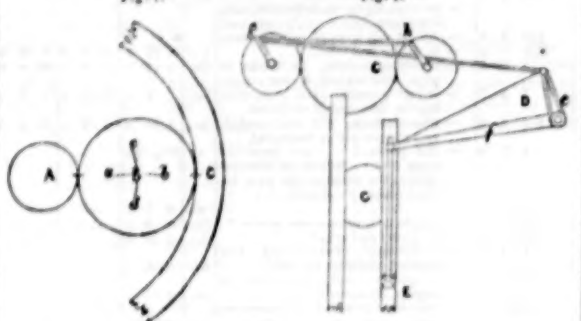
Fowey Consols Mine, Cornwall, March 14.

ASCENT AND DESCENT IN DEEP MINES.

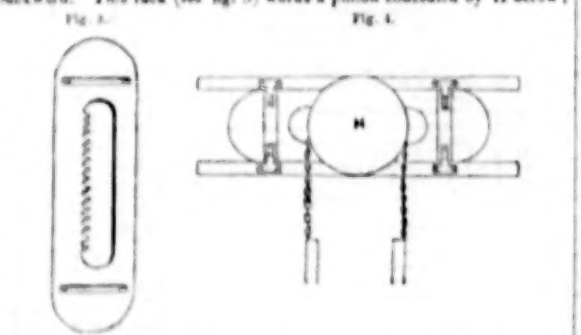
TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—In my description of the plan of admitting water, &c., on the machine giving motion to the rods, the recurrence of the word *disk* instead of *disk* must have confused the readers of it: with this correction I presume on your courtesy in allowing me to proceed with the manner in which I produce the needed pause for the climber to pass from stage to stage on rods which I propose to reciprocate up and down the shaft.

Let A (see fig. 1) be the small cog-wheel or pinion attached to the axis of the driving engine, and let it rotate uniformly—that is, with an equable motion; let B be a wheel, with an eccentric axis at *a*, one-third of its diameter; let C be the ring of a wheel, concentric with A, to keep B and A in gear; let motion take place with A, then will the axis *a* play in a groove *e* from *a* to *b*, while the centre B oscillates between *c* and *d*; then let the axis *a* be the nearest possible to pinion A—that is, at a distance of one-third the diameter of B—then, if the circumference of A moves one foot per second, the interior point of B in contact with it must also move one foot per second, while its opposite or exterior point at a distance from *a*, two-thirds of B's diameter, must move twice as fast as the circumference of A. Now, suppose the axis *a* to arrive over at *b*, and the exterior point at the circumference of B to arrive around to touch A, then the long and short radii of B will have exchanged places—that is, the two-thirds becomes interior, and the one-third exterior—then circumference of A going as before, one foot per second, causes the new exterior point of B to move but six inches per second, so that during the round of B there are two points in its circumference, which, as they successively assume the exterior position, the one carries the ring C twice as fast as A, and the other only half as fast, the difference being as 4 to 1, as before spoken of; and the wheel C is employed to move crank-wheels and bobs, or as may be—thus the bob D (see fig. 2) being only attached to one rod, as at E, the rod F being attached over a balance-wheel as at G, of which more to be said hereafter. The length of the stroke in the shaft is governed by the proportions in lengths of *e* and *f*. The above arrangement is plain and practical, but, instead of the bob D, I have in my model a rectangular rack, into which the crank *plus* *g* and *h* work, and carry it forward and backward. This rack (see fig. 3) works a pinion concealed by H below;



then the length of stroke in the shaft increases with the size of H only, all the other wheels being the same for any stroke. The front of the machine, with the pinion and balance-wheel added, appears as in fig. 4. This arrangement, involving so many wheels, has been deprecated for its complexity, but I know not how to dispense with any one of them unless the variable admission of steam or water described in my last is sufficient to impel the common crank with a variable velocity—supposing the flow of either to almost cease at the dead point. The length of this train of work may be twelve feet, the height six feet, and the thickness quite within a two-foot wall, except the oscillating wheel H, the axis of which is necessarily prolonged over the shaft.



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Fowey Consols, Feb. 25.

JOHN PHILLIPS.

THE RUDE LIGHT—ITS INVENTOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

Sir,—Some time since I addressed you on the subject of the Rude Light, under the impression that that communication would be sufficient—as acquainting you with the perpetration of a gross fraud by Dr. Lardner and Mr. Garvey, in appropriating to themselves the invention of Mr. Lardner, a correspondent of your Journal—to secure your powerful assistance in exposing the unworthy conduct of those parties, and to do an act of justice towards the ingenious gentleman so wronged, in setting the public right as to whom they are indebted for that excellent invention. My intention was to have forwarded a further communication, with abstract of Mr. Lardner's paper, read before the British Association by Dr. Lardner, but, finding, from a note attached to a letter from another correspondent, that you intended to publish the letter entire, I was in hopes that an early Number would contain it, with sufficient editorial remarks to awaken the plagiarizing Doctor to a sense of shame at his conduct, and to satisfy the public of the base mean made of an excellent suggestion contained in a paper introduced to his eye, by a more worthy, although more humble, follower in the path of science.

Some weeks having passed without the least notice of the subject, am I to conclude that your columns are too well occupied to admit of noticing the subject, or that you do not feel sufficient interest, or desire, to render that assistance, which in reason might be expected, in exposing a scientific fraud? and which, I may observe, appears to me in the duty of the conductor of a paper of as high a character, and devoted to such laudable purposes as the Mining Journal.

Glasgow, March 15.

[We have to thank our correspondent for keeping attention alive by his communication, but we may assure him that the subject has not been lost sight of by us—indeed, we have only awaited the receipt of information, which will, we hope, immediately prove that not only is it right, but that such wrong has been done Mr. Lardner, in whom, with our correspondent, we are inclined to believe the merit of the Rude Light is due.]

* There are three wheels of size B, their axes being carried to one end of the shaft, and the other end of the shaft is connected to the other end of the shaft. The crank pins have rollers as well as the same purpose.

DESULTORY OBSERVATIONS ON VARIOUS SUBJECTS.

WILLIAMS'S PATENT FURNACE.

The discussion on combustion and fuel, which has so long occupied the columns of the Mining Journal, is degenerating into personal contention. That a discussion of so much importance should end unsatisfactorily, and that from the bad feelings of those engaged in it towards each other, and not from the impractical nature of the subject-matter of it, is not to be permitted, if reasonable remonstrance will avail to restore order and induce amenity. In discussions on points of science, truth is the only object that should be aimed at; irritating and insulting language should, therefore, be avoided, for, in the tumult of irritation and passion, truth is either lost sight of or passed unheeded—in proof of which we have Mr. Hood's disingenuous perversion of a passage in Mr. Williams's Treatise, and which his subsequent apology has by no means palliated. Ridicule and harsh language can be used with propriety only to repress the presumptions of confident ignorance or the encroachments of vice. I am certain the gentlemen I allude to will, on reflection, see how much they derogate from their dignity as scholars and philosophers, and how much they cause to be lost to the world by ill-natured contention, and that, seeing such consequences, they will avoid the cause.

Mr. Williams has proved that the gases evolved from the fuel in a steam-furnace may be consumed; but he has furnished little practical evidence, and that so vague as to be almost valueless, that they are perfectly consumed, or consumed so far as his furnace, as to make the saving of fuel thereby worthy of consideration. The theory of Mr. Williams's patent is unexceptionable in my judgment; but does the practice square with the theory, and if not fully, in what degree? is a question asked by many. I presume it would, therefore, be worth Mr. Williams's while to adduce evidence of the actual amount of saving of fuel effected by one of his furnaces in common use. There can be little difficulty in obtaining such evidence, and until it is obtained and made public, the objections to his furnace will continue to have greater influence than Mr. Williams will, perhaps, believe. Mr. Hood has asserted and reasserted, in decided terms, that steam delivered into a chimney will prevent the emission of smoke; and, moreover, he has produced what appear proofs of the fact. I do not dispute Mr. Hood's proofs, but I never witnessed such result from the action of steam, and I have the means of daily and hourly observation. Is Mr. Hood personally cognisant of the proofs he offers? It is a common notion that steam will act as Mr. Hood asserts; but, if it do, it must be under some peculiarity of condition I cannot discover, and that I should be glad to be informed of.

In the uproar of contention about the theory of combustion, the relative value of the different kinds of fuel has been totally lost sight of. Mr. Williams maintains, if I understand him rightly, that common coal, with his furnace, is superior to coke and stone coal, because the heating power of the carbon and gases of the coal must be superior to the heating power of carbon alone. But before this can be admitted, Mr. Williams must prove that the gases arising from the combustion of coal in a boiler-furnace can be consumed entirely and perfectly by his system; and also that the same amount of oxygen enters into combustion in a common coal fire as in a fire of coke or stone coal—the latter being in the condition to produce perfect combustion. In other words, Mr. Williams must prove that, with his furnace, he can, in a given time, produce as much heat from common coal as from coke or stone coal, under the conditions of supply of oxygen proper to each.

I throw out these observations with a view to recall the attention of Messrs. Williams, Brough, Leighton, and Thompson, to the subject.

MR. MONTAGUE'S GEOLOGY.

The theoretical essays on geology, by Mr. Montague, display talent and learning, and have at least the merit of originality sufficient to give us pause. I do not agree with Mr. Montague's reasoning throughout, nor with all his notions, and some of his facts require authenticating—but, right or wrong, I admire the boldness of his philosophy. I infer Mr. Montague belongs to the Kantian, or Transcendental, school of philosophers; but be that as it may, his philosophical smacks of that school, and is much too frequently objectionable, being obscure and equivocal, when it should be clear and unequivocal. Plain English is quite adequate to any purpose of language. Our tongue will never owe any thing to the Transcendentalists—Mr. Herd and his Magazine notwithstanding. German owes nothing to Kant. My purpose is not, however, so much to remark on Mr. Montague's writing, as to thank him for his essays, and advise him to receive notice of fanatics like Mr. Wilson. If he stops to remark on the verbiage and literary garb of every middle-head, he will have more to do than he, perhaps, calculates on. The cry of Atheist has long its potency.

—Let us ponder boldly—'tis a base
Abandonment of reason to resign
Our right of thought—our last and only place
Of refuge.

WATER WHEELS.

The Blackleigh "Miner" has broached a subject of much interest, and one little understood by ordinary mechanics; but cranks, as proposed by the "Miner," would be a drawback, instead of an improvement; they would, at points, cause great and sudden disqualifications of the load on the wheel, by destroying the reciprocal action of the pumps. With right-angle cranks, when one crank would be vertical, and the other, of course, horizontal, one set of pumps would be at half stroke out, and the other at the end of the stroke in; therefore, what would occur when the latter began to be risen to the vertical, and the other depressed to horizontal? Clearly an increase of load on the wheel, to the amount of the column of water then set in motion. At other points of the revolution of the cranks, it is equally obvious that both sets of pumps would be making simultaneous strokes. With cranks on the same plane, in opposite directions, the one stroke of the pumps ends instantly before the other begins, so maintaining an equable load, or nearly so, on the wheel.

Touching the speed of wheels, it must be manifest that they cannot exert the full power they are capable of, if they do not move slower than the impelling stream; how much less depends considerably on the construction of the buckets. But it must also be obvious, that the speed of the wheel must not, in all cases, bear the same proportion to the velocity of the stream—there is a speed beyond which wheels should not move. The speed of mill-wheel and of pumps depends on other circumstances than the speed of the wheel that gives them motion. Pumps should invariably be worked with less velocity than that at which the space between the bucket and the fixed check is filled from the suction-pipe. With beam-lifting engines the maximum of true velocity is, perhaps, never passed; but crank engines often go at random with pumps, and so also do water-wheels, either from improper speed or incorrectly proportioned cranks. No writer on mechanical philosophy I am acquainted with, except Young, has noted anything of the speed pumps should be worked at, but abundance on the size of suction pipes, and that, mostly, in ignorance of the practical necessity of making them of smaller bore than working barrels.

Our Blackleigh inquirer will find that the effect of pumps (in condition of course) worked by a water-wheel depends on the speed at which they are worked, and that speed on the speed of the wheel, and on properly proportioned cranks, or gearing. I need not say anything of the application of governors. It would scarce suit the Mining Journal, or I would put together, in a popular manner, the best part of information on water-power that the most worthy authorities furnish; but if the gentleman who has induced these remarks should be in London, he will find, at Mr. Wool's library, great store of works on hydraulics; there are several excellent treatises on such Treatises I recommend to his attention.

N. V. B. Holwell, is entirely wrong in asserting that the power of water pumps depends on the gravity of water—it depends on the difference of level. His question as to the height of a column of water necessary for a "pressure-engine," to equal a 50-foot wheel, as far as such static force goes, can be answered only by informing him that it will depend on the diameter of the base of the column. A column of one foot would suffice, with a sufficient base. The velocity of the engine plumb would depend on the velocity of the index and efflux of the water.

MINE SURVEYING.

There is something deeply mysterious and difficult in mine surveying; if we must judge from the names, examinations and communications we have of late been favoured with; but they remind me of the devil showing

* With all our difference in our correspondence, it is just worth practical notice that does not the Journal, and the sections of which most need to be kept up, will only be the occasion of the necessary work, but its general utility to all engaged in mining pursuits.

